DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 452 341 CE 078 924

| | |
|---|---|
| AUTHOR | Lasonen, Johanna L. |
| TITLE | Entrepreneurship and Self-Employment Training in Technical and Vocational Education. |
| SPONS AGENCY | United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Berlin (Germany). International Project on Technical and Vocational Education (UNEVOC). |
| PUB DATE | 1999-04-00 |
| NOTE | 19p.; Keynote statements at Lifelong Learning and Training: A Bridge to the Future, International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education (2nd, Seoul, Republic of Korea, April 26-30, 1999). |
| AVAILABLE FROM | For full text: http://www.unevoc.de/congress/pdf/lasonen.pdf. |
| PUB TYPE | Opinion Papers (120) -- Speeches/Meeting Papers (150) |
| EDRS PRICE | EDRS Price MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS. |
| DESCRIPTORS | Access to Education; Adjustment (to Environment); Business Education; Change Strategies; Comparative Analysis; Definitions; Delivery Systems; *Education Work Relationship; Educational Change; Educational Environment; Educational Finance; *Educational Needs; Educational Policy; *Educational Trends; Employed Women; Employment Patterns; Employment Problems; *Entrepreneurship; Financial Support; Foreign Countries; Futures (of Society); Learning Theories; Lifelong Learning; Needs Assessment; Policy Formation; Postsecondary Education; Public Sector; Secondary Education; *Self Employment; Small Businesses; Teaching Methods; Trend Analysis; Unemployment; *Vocational Education; Womens Education |
| IDENTIFIERS | Austria; Canada; England; Finland; France; Germany; United States |

ABSTRACT

The increasing emphasis on entrepreneurship and self-employment training in vocational education and training (VET) worldwide was examined. Special attention was paid to the following themes: (1) the content and various concepts of entrepreneurship, including the distinction between external and internal entrepreneurship; (2) trends in entrepreneurship education in different countries, the implications of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education, and the necessity of broad occupational skills and occupational mastery to education and learning in general; (3) the societal and education system contexts of entrepreneurship education; (4) problems of access to training and entrepreneurship as exemplified by the position of women; and (5) the future of entrepreneurship education in light of a critical examination of the emphases, contents, and goals of entrepreneurship education and a brief consideration of the challenge that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education present to educational institutions and the operation and organization of the public sector. It was concluded that, in general, the existing goals of entrepreneurship training place too much emphasis on the instrumental value of learning and knowledge and economic and material values. It was recommended that pedagogical approaches in VET be adjusted so as to enable

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

teaching and learning fostering creative and innovative citizens who are able to employ themselves. (Contains 21 references.) (MN)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 452 341



# UNESCO CONGRESS

**Second International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education**

**Lifelong Learning and Training: A Bridge to the Future**

## Entrepreneurship and Self-Employment Training in Technical and Vocational Education

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

J. Lasonen

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

2B

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

by

**Dr Johanna L. Lasonen**, Project Manager

*President of IVETA*

*International Vocational Education and Training Association*

University of Jyväskylä

Institute for Educational Research

P.O. Box 35, 40351 Jyväskylä, FINLAND

Tel. +358 14 260 3307; Mobile +358 40 5279407;

Fax +358 14 260 3201

E-mail address: lasonen@piaget.jyu.fi

**Keynote Statements at**

**the Second International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education**

Seoul

Republic of Korea

26-30 April 1999



CE 078 524

# Entrepreneurship and Self-Employment Training in Technical and Vocational Education

***Dr Johanna Lasonen***
*President of IVETA*

Institute for Educational Research
University of Jyväskylä, Finland

**Abstract**

The renewed actuality of the theme of entrepreneurship and self-employment training is due to increasing problems in transition from VET to working life at a time where access to paid employment can no longer be taken for granted and where entrepreneurship and self-employment have, consequently, become more important as potential sources of livelihood. The paper examines this situation through a discussion of five interconnected themes: 1) the content and various concepts of entrepreneurship, with particular attention being paid to the distinction between external and internal entrepreneurship; 2) trends in entrepreneurship education in different countries and the implications of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education and of the necessity of broad occupational skills or occupational mastery to education and learning in general; 3) the societal and educational system contexts of entrepreneurship education; 4) problems in access to training and entrepreneurship as exemplified by the position of women; and 5) the future of entrepreneurship education in the light of a critical examination of the emphases, contents and goals of entrepreneurship education and a brief consideration of the challenge that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education present to educational establishments and the operation and organisation of the public sector.

## Introduction

As such, the theme *Entrepreneurship and Self-Employment Training* is not a new one for vocational education and training. In many countries the roots of established VET (vocational education and training) systems are in the training traditions of trade and craft guilds. Thus, the traditional employment perspective was characterised by entrepreneurship and self-employment. However, due to later historical developments, we tend to assume that regular VET provision prepares trainees for paid employment.

Unemployment is a growing global problem that besets industrialised countries, developing countries and the countries in economic transition alike. Virtually any country in the world is struggling to cope with the limitations of wage labour and the public sector and is turning, either by plan or out of sheer necessity, to the informal sector and self-employment to help address the unemployment problem.

The new topicality of the theme is thus linked to increasing problems in transition from VET to the anticipated paid employment. At a time when larger enterprises are reducing their intake of new employees, traditional small and medium-sized enterprises are experiencing increasing market pressures. Accordingly, they are becoming increasingly selective when engaging new employees - they need skilled workers with relevant experience.

Due to these developments there is a tendency towards transition-supporting schemes or job-seeking initiatives during which trainees consider whether to become self-employed or generate improvement in the service of another. The need for such support measures raises the question of how VET provision in different countries should respond to the new situation and prepare the trainees for a successful transition. In particular, there is a need to reflect on the new situation of SMEs (small and medium-sized enterprises), the most likely providers of new employment opportunities.

Entrepreneurship is taken for granted as the mentality behind setting up and managing enterprises in the various occupational sectors. The underlying rationale of such a mentality has been found an advantageous strategy also when adapted for use in larger working communities both in the public and in the open sector. In a community entrepreneurship serves as a source for answers to the problem of innovativeness and to questions of flexibility and quality. An individual, again, turns to entrepreneurship to look for ways of securing employment and finding job motivation. Nevertheless, self-employment is not a panacea for unemployment although it provides benefits for individuals.

While self-employment generates jobs, some people find establishing enterprises harder than others. Women are much rarer as entrepreneurs than men. Women come up against traditional gender stereotypes that often function as invisible structures limiting women's options (Lasonen, 1992). Nevertheless, in the last twenty years women's proportion in all entrepreneurs has risen in nearly all parts of the world. Self-employment offers women an opportunity to achieve an independent executive position.

As a social strategy, entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship promotion programmes have featured in the context of local-, regional- and national-level activities and of activities intended to improve the functioning of various networks. National business and workforce strategies emphasise entrepreneurship as a motor of society. On regional and local level, increasingly important in developing the different parts of a country, entrepreneurship-related themes are foregrounded as alternative means of increasing human well-being. At the core of these

strategies are new structures and their networks of entrepreneurs. Entrerpreneurship is already being stressed in connection with the strategies of public organisations and of reforming and rationalising the provision of public services.

The absolute boundary conditions of entrepreneurship are certain ethical rules grounded on the principles of universal human rights. International, national and regional labour legislation and other relevant regulations represent a further attempt to ensure that no one will be exploited and that nobody will profit at another□s expense and that the rights of the employee are transparent and that they are also put into effect.

The starting point for developing future entrepreneurship is some situation that we want to change and whose problems and their contexts we have become aware of. As regards developing the future readin□ss of entrepreneurship, the goals may focus on economic growth, relieving poverty, personal empowerment or various combinations of these. All three target areas are complex and rich. Here I will concentrate on some prerequisites for promoting readiness for entrepreneurship.

## External and Internal Entrepreneurship

People behind successful enterprises arouse interest - how do they operate and perceive their environment and how do they make use of their perceptions in acting as they do? We also want to know how they were educated and how they learn at their work. The type of entrepreneurship training where the goal is owner-entrepreneurship or setting up and maintaining new enterprises aims at developing a mode of thinking and action and an attitude that is called entrepreneurship and characterised by creativity and diligence, and ideas, actions and an attitude towards work of a kind required for generating successful products.

Entrepreneurship and enterprise-oriented culture are blurred concepts that include variables describing individual and social action and situations (Cross & Payne, 1991). The concept of entrepreneurship may also be linked with political ideologies. In Europe certain government parties have used it as a vague slogan. However, the ideology of entrepreneurship refers to initiative, inventiveness and leadership. Attitudes towards entrepreneurship are culture-specific and differ between and within cultures from one situation to another.

As regards interpretations of entrepreneurship, Cunningham and Lischeron (1991) distinguished six ways to investigate its nature: (1) an approach emphasising innate entrepreneurship and arguing that a great person is born with an instinct that promotes entrepreneurship; (2) a school of thought emphasising psychological traits according to which entrepreneurs are guided by certain values, attitudes and needs; (3) an approach emphasising innovations that instead of ownership foregrounds the process of acting as an entrepreneur; (4) an approach emphasising management that sees an entrepreneur as an organiser, owner, manager

and economic risk-taker; (5) a school of thought emphasising leadership and arguing that an entrepreneur has the ability to adjust their actions to people□s needs; (6) and an approach emphasising internal entrepreneurship that foregrounds entrepreneurship manifesting within organisations and in the service of others and linked with the creation, marketing and expansion of services.

However, entrepreneurship must be seen in the context of a broader enterprise culture and of each society. Timmons (1989) saw entrepreneurship as an ability to create and build something out of nearly nothing. This involves taking initiative, achieving things and constructing an enterprise or organisation while analysing threats and opportunities. Entrepreneurship is an individual□s ability to recognise opportunities where others see only chaos and conflict and an ability to supplement one□s skills and competencies by drawing on other people□s expertise.

Entrepreneurship goes beyond the founding of enterprises, which represents external entrepreneurship. The idea of entrepreneurship may be considered an aspect of human life and adopted as a starting point of educational philosophy so as to encourage, through upbringing and education, certain ways of thinking and action and certain attitudes, which represent internal entrepreneurship. The most central dimensions of internal entrepreneurship include work motivation, flexibility, bringing about reforms, innovativeness that includes creativity, responsibility and independence. On the collective level internal entrepreneurship is linked with operational environments, management methods, organisation and achieved success. On the individual level internal entrepreneurship is linked with personality, motivation, environment and situation.

Entrepreneurship is thus an umbrella term within which a distinction is made between external and internal entrepreneurship. External entrepreneurship refers to setting up enterprises and operating as an independent owner-entrepreneur. Entrepreneurship as such is the ability to locate and draw on, using knowledge of business techniques in conjunction with the application of personal skills and value systems, resources for creative and innovative purposes with a view to meeting needs and solving problems in business development. Internal entrepreneurship refers to focused, responsible and creative work at the service of an enterprise (one□s own or another□s). The assumption is that an external entrepreneur works when there is work to be done. However, an internal entrepreneur must work even when there is no work. Here the creative and innovative components of entrepreneurship come to the fore. If there is not enough profit-making work, an internal entrepreneur must use their creative and innovative skills to generate new and profit-making work, that is, revise established practices.

Internal entrepreneurship is closely linked with the concept of motivation. Many theories of motivation are suitable for describing internal entrepreneurship (Peltonen, 1987). Motivation for work stems from three main types of motive. In entrepreneurship, instrumental motives

involve earning one□s livelihood while expressive motives are linked with satisfying one□s emotions, generating feelings of well-being and inspiring respect in other people. Thirdly entrepreneurship enables mental growth when the entrepreneur□s occupational skills improve and they themselves develop as human beings.

Entrepreneurship offers individual people the opportunity to take life as a challenge and stake their all. According to Koiranen and Pohjansaari (1994) a public servant who has turned into a bureaucrat and internalised the rigid values and attitudes of established administrative institutions may be seen as the opposite of internal entrepreneurship. Such a bureaucrat aspires to certainty and order, executing their office under discipline and supervision. When an organisation begins to turn into a bureaucracy, the ideal employee becomes increasingly akin to such a functionary. Routines and strictly systematic approaches as such are not always and everywhere a bad thing. The original purpose of bureaucracy was to create order and consistency in large organisations. However, bureaucratic attitudes may become a factor obstructing internal entrepreneurship. An alternative to bureaucracy is the targeted energy and power of human freedom.

In this paper entrepreneurship is understood as the conditions that the needs and events of various times set to work and employment in different social contexts. In addition to the two types of entrepreneurship mentioned above, internal and external, entrepreneurship has a third dimension involving self-directedness as an aspect of entrepreneurship. This third dimension may be seen either as a shared element (cf. the concept of intrapreneurship as used by Haskins & Williams, 1987) or as a third form of entrepreneurship linked with lifelong personal growth (cf. the view of Kyrö, 1997). In human action these three types or aspects of entrepreneurship perform different functions. External entrepreneurship describes a process that culminates in the birth of an independent enterprise which is also its external manifestation. Internal entrepreneurship is here defined as referring to the entrepreneurlike way of action of a working community, involving a collective process. Self-directedness in entrepreneurship, again, refers to changes in the role of an individual, the story of their own development, their behaviour, attitudes and way of action.

Next I am focusing on the perspective of intrapreneurship rather than that of entrepreneurship. This means a focus on the attitudes and personality linked with entrepreneurship and on entrepreneurship as a an ethos and a mentality. I shall discuss primarily not training intended to produce entrepreneurs but education producing enterprising citizens. Enterprising citizens are able to find their own strengths and the ways in which they can succeed in life.

Ultimately every individual is themselves responsible for finding a job and earning their livelihood and for the benefits and risks linked with these, as complicated as the statement may be in different societies. This is the situation for which we will prepare - bring up and educate -

our children and young people.

**Access to Training and Entrepreneurship**

Women and minorities continue to have a representation among independent entrepreneurs and managers of enterprises that is below their proportion in the general population. A decision to start a business may cause a woman more anxiety than what would be felt by a man because becoming an entrepreneur or self-employed has traditionally been more in keeping with the male than with the female gender identity and because of the male domination in the business world. Women running their own business face both external and internal constraints, constraints stemming from the gender-specific processes of socialisation and from structural forces. Values and skills needed in working life, especially in managerial positions, match the outcome of the male socialization process. Among these skills political competence includes the ability to create and use informal contacts and network and the ability to convince other people and to read the political landscape from which women have traditionally been excluded (Pehu, Avotie & Lasonen, 1997).

The debate on women as managers of enterprises began in the 1980s. The last 25 years have seen a considerable increase in the proportion of women among owners of small and medium-sized companies all around the world. As women□s level of education has risen, they have also become better equipped for establishing enterprises of their own and gained more courage to actually do so.

Nevertheless, women are substantially rarer as entrepreneurs than men. Women also choose different lines of business, operating in commerce and services more often than men (International Labour Organization, 1998). Motivation for becoming an entrepreneur differs between women and men (Carter & Cannon, 1992). Women see in entrepreneurship an opportunity for independent work. An enterprise of one□s own opens a woman the possibility of gaining managerial positions and status, which gendered practices in the division of labour may make impossible in the public sector. Another factor exerting a degree of influence on women□s becoming entrepreneurs is unemployment.

Social situational factors favouring the founding of enterprises may be used to encourage people to provide employment to themselves. As examples of such situational incentives may be mentioned procedures linked with the establishment and operation of an enterprise, taxation, financing, support to people starting their first company, consultancy services and business hatcheries.

Women who become entrepreneurs face many obstacles. Discriminatory treatment of female entrepreneurs by creditors, suppliers and customers is common and may make it difficult to maintain and expand the enterprise. The lack of collateral and the small size of women's

businesses may block access to credit. In developing countries women often have to pay high interest. Women entrepreneurs often lack support networks. General business subsidies go chiefly to large enterprises and enterprises operating in popular fields, passing the small micro-level enterprises led by women. There have been few training programmes tailored to women□s needs. Because in most countries women are unemployed more often than men, women□s self-employment programmes are more and more essential. We must recognise and eliminate the factors hampering women□s independent entrepreneurship.

## Trends in Entrepreneurship Education

Different cultures and sociohistorical contexts generate different interpretations of entrepreneurship and emphasise different aspects of the concept. Its meaning has been adjusted to the values of the surrounding society. Terms mentioned in connection with entrepreneurship include enterprise, entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship training. In the UK the term □enterprise□ is used in a number of contexts, such as □business enterprise□ or the activities of a businessperson, □enterprise training□ or training for those running or planning to run small enterprises, and □enterprise initiative□ or chiefly training consultancy.

The concept 'entrepreneurship education' has been in general use in Canada and the USA but has appeared rarely in England and only sporadically elsewhere in Europe. The English use the term □enterprise education□ which is associated with developing personality traits. According to Gibb (1993), it does not necessarily include the frame of reference of a profit-making small enterprise even if it is linked with developing an enterprising culture. In Canada the schools of the Province of Quebec emphasise entrepreneurship and its promotion as a dynamic process that enables individuals, singly or collectively, to realise the potential they have for taking initiative (Pihkala, 1998).

In Finland the National Board of Education has defined the goals of entrepreneurship education as comprising, on the one hand, developing an attitude of internal entrerpreneurship that combines flexibility, initiative, creativity, risk-taking, independent action, the ability to cooperate and a strong motivation to perform well and, on the one hand, increasing children and young people□s knowledge of entrepreneurship as an activity and of its preconditions with a view to helping them plan their career choice and post-compulsory education (Ojala & Pihkala, 1994). In the 1990s entrepreneurship education has been incorporated into the educational policy goals of Finnish society on all levels of the educational system. In primary school entrepreneurship education focuses on attitudinal aspects, such as acquiring study skills and assuming responsibility. In lower secondary school the scope of entrepreneurship education expands to also cover knowledge and skills. In certain areas of upper secondary vocational education entrepreneurship education may take very concrete forms, such as marketing and

business education, handicrafts, farming. Adult education has seen the setting up of entrepreneurship qualificalitions (National Board of Education, 1993).

Public attitudes towards entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education have not always been positive. We remember the climate prevailing in the educational and enterprise policies of the 1960s and the 1970s. Structural changes and periods of economic recession together with the unemployment caused by them have gradually raised the status of entrepreneurship. I shall illustrate this with the case of Finland, a country that in its geographical context has historically lain between East and West. Only in the 1990s has entrepreneurship reached in Finland a stage of development where the goals of comprehensive schools, upper secondary schools and vocational, tertiary and adult education now include entrepreneurship. Further, there is a broad political will to promote entrepreneurship. All the ministries most closely involved with working life have publicly declared the years 1995-2000 a decade of entrepreneurship in Finland.

Internal entrepreneurship attracted interest in the world of business in the 1980s while catching the attention of all sectors of education only in this decade. Promoting internal entrepreneurship is one of the most central developmental challenges in education. The challenge concerns all vocational education and will gradually extend also to general education. At the same time profound changes in conceptions of learning support and favour emphasising entrepreneurship in education.

Pinchot (1987) uses the term intrapreneurship when describing entrepreneurship within large organisations. According to him/her, an aspect of internal entrepreneurship is assuming responsibility for creating innovation within one□s organisation. Internal entrepreneurship is associated with the means and procedures that an organisation uses to identify new ideas, products and philosophies. Haskins and Williams (1987) stress that internal entrepreneurship is suitable not only for product innovation but also for developing new processes and improving existing practices. At its most ambitious the aim of internal entrepreneurship is an organisational climate that encourages entrepreneurship, necessary particularly to fostering initiative among the members of the organisation.

## Educational System Contexts of Entrepreneurship Education and Learning

Both in rich and poor countries, small enterprises provide an economic structure that complements large and multinational businesses and the formal sector. However, in many countries new small firms are set up or change ownership every or every other year. Reasons for such failure include: lack of planning skills, inadequate controls, poor management skills, inability to market one□s products or services, and lack of skills needed to locate professional help (Hernandez-Gantes, 1997). To survive, small enterprises must adopt new management

styles and acquired entrepreneurial skills that enable them to recognise changes and improve business performance. Entrepreneurial skills are also required if businesses are to be able to anticipate changes, identify opportunities, and create a high-performance working environment in keeping with a reality shaped by local, regional and global competition. Enterprises' readiness to meet these demands depends on learning skills, age, education and training, motivation, attitudes, business and technical skills, the ability to gather information and resources for entrepreneurial purposes, the interpersonal and cultural dimension, and the characteristics of the surrounding community and the nature and quality of available training opportunities. For example, young people interested in entrepreneurial opportunities may lack the knowledge and career development support needed to start a business.

The rapid development of technology is a result of a process where human capital has mastered and taken control of the environment. Economic and technical changes have contributed to a need to revise the structures and contents of education. In this decade, the educational debates of many industrial countries feature the concept of change and principles and programmes for bringing it about and the question of their practical success. The principles behind and practices governing the provision of vocational education in different countries are determined by each nation's economic, cultural and social characteristics and the developmental process that created its industrial structure.

The traditional role of regular training providers, the vocational and technical education establishments, has been to prepare students for immediate productive participation in the workforce, and in continuing education and a later entry into working life. Current trends in the workplace and in local/global markets suggest a need to reassess the role of technical and vocational education in order to focus on a more active participation in community and global development where entrepreneurship and economic development are seen as a comprehensive community endeavour.

The systematic implementation of entrepreneurship education in different national educational systems depends on the one hand on the status of vocational education and on the degree of esteem it is accorded and, more specifically, on the implicit goals of entrepreneurship education. As regards esteem for vocational education, in Europe a comparison between eight different upper secondary educational systems led to the identification of four alternative strategies for promoting parity of esteem between vocational and general/academic education: vocational enhancement, mutual enrichment, linkages, and unification, representing different systemic starting points, varying scope for innovatory activities and a diverse range of curriculum vehicles (Lasonen, 1996). The potential that the various strategies have for improving esteem for vocational education is based on structural and curricular changes in upper secondary education, the internal development of vocational education through learning, and the development of existing general and vocational qualifications.

The strategy of *vocational enhancement* starts from the assumption that by developing teaching and learning it is possible to give students the qualifications to engage in tertiary-level further studies, traditionally thought to be possible to acquire only in general upper secondary education. Esteem for vocational education is linked with the standard of the content offered and the pedagogy applied in vocational education and training. The German and Austrian reforms are grounded on the assumption that vocational training can also open students a path to higher education qualifications. In these countries representing what is known as the dual system, vocational education has been fairly popular, as suggested by German and Austrian students choices between general/academic and vocational education. Entrepreneurship education is provided within the vocational education system as a specific pedagogical approach. The problems of social exclusion do exist, but to a much lesser degree than in systems where the status of vocational education is low.

Under the strategy of *mutual enrichment* represented by the Norwegian and Finnish reforms, vocational education institutions, enterprises and general upper secondary schools cooperate with the aim of giving students a broader range of options and more stimulating learning environments. Different types of school on one hand and school and work on the other hand are brought together while still preserving their distinctive character. In these countries, too, the status and standing of vocational education has been high, and the goals of entrepreneurship education have been explicitly incorporated into the different levels of the educational system. As compared to vocational enhancement, in mutual enrichment educational systems are school-based. Like academic and general education, vocational education has been integrated into the overall system of education and provided with levels of funding equal to that of the academic track . Entrepreneurship education has been provided also in adult education, both as courses and as studies leading to a qualification.

The *linkages* strategy, adopted in England and France, involves making vocational and general education formally equal by linking both to a common qualification structure. Traditionally the educational systems of these countries have been highly selective. Education has maintained a system of social classes where vocational education is intended for representatives of the lower social strata. Particularly in England the development of vocational education has been linked with funding policies. Entrepreneurship has begun to be emphasised as the unemployment rate has risen, with recourse being had to the adage Everyone is the architect of their own fortune.

The three above-mentioned strategies aim to maintain a separate identity for vocational and general education. Under the strategy of *unification*, by contrast, vocational and general education have merged to the degree of making up a uniform upper secondary education system. Historically the position of vocational education in these countries has been weak and underappreciated, and adopting a unification strategy will not improve the situation. Two very

different educational cultures responding to different educational needs have been forcibly amalgamated. In this strategy entrepreneurship education has been integrated into regular study programmes. In addition to reforming educational systems to promote equal standing for vocational vis-a-vis general education, approaches to curriculum development and learning are related to reforming entrepreneurship education and enhancing entrepreneurial spirit.

**Approaches of Intrapreneurship**

An important aspect of the subject is our conception of learning. Conceptions of learning are increasingly foregrounding the learner□s own active engagement and the dynamic nature of the learning process. A learner in the process of learning something is seen as a mentally active agent and subject who learns through their own experiences and learning acts. As a result, the learner□s personal internal factors such as will, goals, plans, prior knowledge and skills structures, are highlighted as central factors in and criteria of effectiveness in learning. At school the focus shifts from teaching to learning.

According to an active and dynamic conception of learning, learning is a work process of the learner. Work, again, will increasingly entail learning new things. Learning at work is increasingly being credited as part of formal qualifications. Learning and other types of work involve much the same factors, such as motivational ones. It is possible to consider studying from the perspective of work motivation.

As a result of this shift in learning conceptions, the learner□s role as an active subject is foregrounded. In a longer perspective this means that the emergence of entrepreneurship in an individual is an internal process: guided by their own internal factors, people consciously pursue goals that they have themselves set.

Cotton (1991) emphasised entrepreneurship education as a methodology where young people launch and manage their own projects as a method of learning. At its best project work may develop such traits linked with entrepreneurship as initiative, flexibility, purposefulness and teamwork skills.

Traditional theories of learning have been criticised for defining learning as a phenomenon separate from work. Learning has occurred in separately organised situations unlinked with work. Further, learning has been associated with an individual as a learner. However, in working situations knowledge and learning have been distributed, through the interaction between the people taking part in it, throughout the structure as a whole. Learning does not take place in external actions but, instead, in the relations between individuals and their actions and the objects of those actions. Defining new goals and modes of action and linking them with learning is a central problem in developing an enterprise as an organisation.

Another central consideration linked with entrepreneurship is the concept of occupational

mastery. At different times and in different social contexts working life has demanded occupational skills of various narrowness or breadth. Narrow occupational skills are characterised by short-term training for performing a specific task or handling a distinct stage in a work process. Narrow vocational education may even hinder people from becoming entrepreneurs. Two extensive areas of competence are important for entrepreneurs: operational competencies and managerial competencies. Operational skills consist of basic technical knowledge about production processes together with general contextual knowledge. Managerial competence includes skills that have to do with planning, problem-solving, decision-making, organisation, negotiation and control. Broad occupational skills comprise three educational goals. First, students must gain a purposeful mastery of the work process as a whole. Secondly, a person possessing broad occupational skills adjusts flexibly to new, variable and even surprising changes in aims, situations, methods and tools. Thirdly, students must learn to make use of their whole personality while working so that both their personality and their working practices develop as a result of practical work.

Thus, broad occupational skills involve action based on an overall grasp of an operational field and characterised by appropriate response to a wide range of situations. Work is guided by analyses of its content and structure, of its internal developmental trends, such as the historical development of work, and of its cognitive and motivational parameters.

In Europe, the funding policies of the development and training programmes of the European Union have emphasised entrepreneurship, starting new entrepreneurial activities and collaborative networking. Entrepreneurship education is being provided during the programme period 1994-1999 and this will continue in 2000-2006. These structural funds of the EU are linked with areas receiving various kinds of support. Renewing areas suffering from structural changes in the industry (Goal 2 areas), the development and structural integration of non-urban areas (Goal 5b areas) and developing very sparsely populated areas (Goal 6 areas) are regionally oriented goals serving as the starting point of EU□s targeting of its support with a view to promoting entrepreneurship in these areas.

## Future of Entrepreneurship Education

In the future, forms of educational provision must increasingly be planned to correspond to learners□ highest needs levels. In addition to having a job, the motives of gaining recognition and of self-realisation, linked with self-expression and mental growth, will become more and more central motives for studying. A contributing factor is the less dominant position today of industrial production, stemming among other things from more and more sophisticated technological innovations that free people from work. According to futurologists, the concept of

work will be redefined. The link between livelihood and work will be severed when citizen□s wage provides a basic income. Education must be able to anticipate this future and prepare people for it.

For some time, the individual and individualism have been gaining ground as positive values. This megatrend promises well for entrepreneurship. Although internal entrepreneurship has the potential of being developed into a management and leadership strategy, emphasising individualism may also become a problem because in the end an individual□s occupational or professional skills make sense only in the context of the work of others, the shared skills of a community, its mastery of an occupation or profession. Internal entrepreneurship in particular foregrounds the ways of action of and collective processes within a working community. Ultimately even the individual is answerable to a community for their actions. Whether one is setting up a new enterprise or working for someone else, eliminating environmental hazards for example promotes sustainable development, benefiting everyone.

The goals of entrepreneurship training emphasise too exclusively the instrumental value of learning and knowledge, and economic and material values. At its worst, this adoption of profit-oriented thinking in education may lead to modern barbarism resulting in an attempt to turn everything into marketable commodities. At its best entrepreneurship education includes vocational and general education components intended to offer materials for constructing a set of values and skills as bases of business activities, provide students with vocational general education, and integrate individual learning with organisational learning. Entrepreneurship education can question the established practices of education, teaching and learning. Naturally enough, teacher-oriented methods and treating students as passive receivers of knowledge does not promote entrepreneurship. Learning at work and crediting it as a part of formal qualifications is effective learning.

The emerging emphasis on the private sector and on micro-enterprises and self-employment has contributed to precipitate a crisis in vocational education and helped identify a re-orientation towards self-employment as a possible response. A natural consequence of such a focus on entrepreneurship is educational institutions establishing collaborative relations with workplaces and companies. Teachers must also realised that they need to find out what is happening outside the school system and what kind of working life they are preparing their students to enter. In the future schools and teachers will no longer be able to isolate themselves within the educational system, ignoring the rest of the world. As a precondition of their continued existence, educational establishments must define their local and national status.

The spirit of entrepreneurship is reshaping the public sector. The actions and decisions of the public sector may affect employment trends. More creative models have been established among other things by merging public and private enterprises and by setting up half-public and public business firms. More avant-garde if politically contentious are public-sector business

hatcheries and venture capital, co-production and self-help with customers. An old arrangement that has been reborn are models of collaboration with voluntary organisations.

In this situation, pedagogical approaches in technical and vocational education and training may need to be adjusted so as to enable teaching and learning fostering creative and innovative citizens who are able employ themselves. The future images of entrepreneurship education that have been introduced in this presentation reflect the present world. We may ask whose future they reflect. As a follow-up measure I wish to suggest a global survey of a realistic image of entrepreneurship underpinning vocational education. Development and research teams operating in different parts of the world might analyse, using jointly agreed criteria, a few broad and representative cases describing the current state and future-oriented goals of and measures involved in entrepreneurship education. Such descriptions might possibly enable us to construct some kind of synthetic picture of the global situation in entrepreneurship education. A future perspective for entrepreneurship education is created through reflection on the present in terms of past and future needs. The future readiness of entrepreneurship education is created by anticipating changes in individuals, organisations and societies and by drawing on these anticipations for an anticipatory entrepreneurship. Our image of entrepreneurship of the future guides our actions. Future readiness is a continuous process where the motor of change is interaction between two factors, future perspectives and developmental strategies.

**References**

Carter, S., & Cannon, T. (1992). *Women as entrepreneurs.* London: Academic Press.

Cotton, J. (1991). The enterprise education experience. *Education and Training, 33*(4), 6-13.

Cross, M., & Payne, G. (1991). *Work and enterprise culture.* Explorations in Sociology No 38. London: Falmer Press.

Cunningham, J., & Lischeron, J.B. (1991). Defining entrepreneurship. *Journal of Small Business Management, 1*(29), 45-61.

Gibb, A. (1993). The enterprise culture and education. *International Small Business Journal, 11*(3), 11-31.

Haskins, G., & Williams, R. (1987). *Intrapreneurship in action: Successful European company practices.* Lontoo: Falmer Press.

International Labour Organization. (1998). *World employment report 1998-99. Employability in the global economy: How training matters.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

Koiranen, M., & Pohjansaari, T. (1994). *Sisäinen yrittäjyys. Innovatiivisuuden, laadun ja tuottavuuden perusta* [Internal entrepreneurship. Basis of innovativeness, quality and productivity]. Tampere: Tammer-paino.

Kyrö, P. (1997). *Yrittäjyyden muodot ja tehtävä ajan murroksissa* [Forms and function of entrepreneurship during the current crisis]. Jyväskylä: Jyväskylän yliopisto.

Lasonen, J. (1998). Finding new strategies for post-16 education to promote parity of esteem between vocational and general education. In A. Dietzen and M. Kuhn Eds.), *Building a European co-operative research tradition in vocational education and training* (pp. 85-95). Berlin: BIBB, Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung.

Lasonen, J. (Ed.) (1996). *Reforming upper secondary education in Europe. The Leonardo da Vinci project Post-16 Strategies.* (Publication Series B. Theory into Practice 92). Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä, Institute for Educational Research.

Lasonen, J. (1992). Gender-role attitudes reflecting sex stratification among Finnish vocational teachers. In S. Ojanen (Ed.), *Nordic teacher training congress on Challenges for Teachers' Profession in the 21st Century* (pp. 98-106). (Research Reports N:o 44). Joensuu: University of Joensuu, Faculty of Education.

Luukkainen, O., & Toivola, T. (Eds.) (1998). Yrittäjyyskasvatus - mitä se voi olla? Esimerkkejä yrittäjyyskasvatuksen toteutuksesta eri kouluasteilla [Entrepreneurial training - What is its potential? Examples of implementing entrepreneurial training at different levels of the school system]. Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä, Chydenius Institute.

National Board of Education. (1993). *Yrittäjätutkinnon perusteet* [Essentials of

entrepreneurship qualifications]. Helsinki: Author.

Ojala, A., & Pihkala, J. (1994). *Yrittäjyys koulussa* [Entrepreneurship at school]. Helsinki: National Board of Education.

Peltonen, M. (1987). *The role of education in entrepreneurship.* Series B/3. Helsinki: Industrial Education Committee.

Pehu, E., Avotie, L., & Lasonen,. J. (1997). Training needs in entrepreneurial leadership for women. In J. Lasonen (Ed.). *IVETA '97 conference proceedings. The Challenge of the 21st Century for Vocational Education and Training* (pp. 212-218). Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä, Institute for Educational Research.

Pihkala, J. (1998). *Yrittäjyyskasvatus koulussa* [Entrepreneurship training at school].Licentiate□s dissertation. Faculty of Education. University of Jyväskylä. Jyväskylä.

Pinchot, G. (1987). Innovation through intrapreneuring. *Research Management, 30*(2), 14-19.

Sexton, D.L., & Kasarda, J.D. (1992). *The state of the art of entrepreneurship.* University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. Boston: PWS-KENT.

Timmons, J.A. (1989). *The entrepreneurial mind.* Andover, MA: Brick House.